

**“A STUDY ON ROLE OF DIAGNOSTIC
LAPAROSCOPY IN EVALUATION OF
CHRONIC LOWER ABDOMINAL PAIN”**

Dissertation submitted to

**THE TAMILNADU DR. M.G.R. MEDICAL
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*With partial fulfillment of the
regulations for the award of the degree of*

M.S (General Surgery)

Branch-I



Government Kilpauk Medical College

Chennai

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BONAFIDE CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the dissertation entitled “**A STUDY ON ROLE OF DIAGNOSTIC LAPAROSCOPY IN EVALUATION OF CHRONIC LOWER ABDOMINAL PAIN**” at Govt. Kilpauk Medical College Hospitals a bonafide work of **Dr. VAITHEESWARAN M**, submitted to The Tamilnadu Dr. M.G.R Medical University in partial fulfillment of requirements for the award of the degree of M.S. BRANCH I (GENERAL SURGERY) examination to be held in MAY, 2019.

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I hereby declare that this dissertation titled “**A STUDY ON ROLE OF DIAGNOSTIC LAPAROSCOPY IN EVALUATION OF CHRONIC LOWER ABDOMINAL PAIN**” at Govt. Kilpauk Medical College Hospital is a bonafide and genuine research work carried out by me in the Department of General Surgery, Government Kilpauk Medical and Hospital, Chennai-10, under the guidance of our Chief **Prof. Dr. V. VIJAYALAKSHMI,MS.,** Government Kilpauk Medical College and Hospital.

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The Proposal is **APPROVED.**

The Institutional Ethical Committee expects to be informed about
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Course of the study any change in the protocol and patient information
/informed consent and asks to be provided a copy of the final report.

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INTRODUCTION

In our surgical practice we often encounter patients with undiagnosed lower abdominal pain who even after careful evaluation with sophisticated investigations remain undiagnosed¹. This group of patients pose a major challenge to the diagnostic capabilities of the surgeon. These patients with undiagnosed abdominal pain are difficult to treat and they tend to have a chronic phase of suffering from the unremitting nature of the pain. This results in loss of doctor patient relationship.

This situation leads to chronic form of depression among these patients. These group of patients are often neglected and they are labeled as functional. To overcome this situation, these patients must be investigated in a proper manner and a goal directed approach has to be followed.

Diagnostic laparoscopy is a valuable tool that can be used in these group of patients to overcome this problem². Diagnostic laparoscopy is used in these patients when the modern imaging techniques fall short in identifying the causes of undiagnosed lower abdominal pain³.

Diagnostic laparoscopy allows the surgeon to visualize the internal organs and help in identifying the pathologies that are not apparent to the

modern day imaging studies. It is much more helpful in female patients whose gynaecological problems offer a great deal of difficulty in coming to a diagnosis.

There are numerous differential diagnoses for the patients with undiagnosed chronic lower abdominal pain. Since diagnostic laparoscopy has a high yield in diagnosing these patients, it has become a major diagnostic modality in surgeons armory.

These patients are evaluated clinically and with imaging studies. Patients who remain undiagnosed are given the choice of diagnostic laparoscopy to identify the cause. Patients giving consent are further evaluated with diagnostic laparoscopy.

AIM OF THE STUDY

- To assess the benefit of using laparoscopy as a diagnostic tool in patients with undiagnosed chronic lower abdominal pain.
- To find various causes leading to chronic abdominal pain by diagnostic laparoscopy

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

ANATOMY:

Pain in the lower abdomen is due to the organs present in right iliac fossa, hypogastrium and left iliac fossa. Structures located are as follows;

Right iliac fossa in males;

1. Terminal ileum
2. Caecum
3. Vermiform Appendix
4. Right ureter
5. Lymph nodes
6. Mesentery

HYPOGASTRIUM IN MALES

1. Bladder
2. Terminal parts of both ureters
3. Prostate
4. Rectum

LEFT ILIAC FOSSA IN MALES

1. Descending colon
2. Sigmoid colon
3. Sigmoid mesentery
4. Lymph nodes
5. Left ureter

RIGHT ILIAC FOSSA IN FEMALES:

1. Terminal ileum
2. Caecum
3. Vermiform appendix
4. Lymph nodes
5. Mesentery
6. Right ureter
7. Right fallopian tube
8. Right ovary

HYPOGASTRIUM IN FEMALES

1. Urinary Bladder
2. Uterus
3. Terminal parts of both ureters
4. Rectum

LEFT ILIAC FOSSA IN FEMALES

1. Descending colon
2. Sigmoid colon
3. Sigmoid mesentery
4. Lymph nodes
5. Left ureter
6. Left Ovary
7. Left fallopian tube

Lower abdominal pain is difficult to diagnose because of the presence of organs of various systems in the lower abdomen. This difficulty is even more amplified in female patients in whom gynaecological problems pose a major diagnostic difficulty. Differential diagnoses are many and they mimic each other making the life of the surgeon much more difficult.

Various causes have been attributed to the development of the lower abdomen pain. Most of the common causes are diagnosed either clinically or radiologically. But some patients do remain undiagnosed.

Chronic appendicitis and adhesions are the frequently encountered causes⁴. Abdominal tuberculosis continues to be one of the major causes

in our country. Even our modern day imaging studies fail to diagnose them eventually paving way for diagnostic laparoscopy.

Gastro intestinal causes:

1. Sub acute / chronic appendicitis
2. Adhesions
3. Ileocecal tuberculosis
4. Mesenteric lymphadenitis
5. Meckel's diverticulitis
6. Mesenteric panniculitis
7. Sigmoid diverticulosis
8. Incisional hernia
9. Inflammatory bowel disease
10. Carcinoma cecum

Gynaecological causes:

1. Adnexitis and tubo ovarian abscess
2. Hydro salpinx
3. Ovarian cysts
4. Endometriosis
5. Uterine fibroid
6. Pelvic inflammatory disease

Urological causes:

1. Urolithiasis
2. Cystitis

Orthopedic and neurological causes:

1. Sacroileitis
2. Radicular pain
3. Cox arthrosis

Acute appendicitis is the most common indication for an abdominal surgery in the world with a life time incidence of about 10%⁵. Chronic appendicitis should be suspected in patients with more than seven days of pain in the right iliac fossa⁶. Its precise etiology is not known. Recurrent appendicitis occurs from transient obstruction of the appendix due to excess mucus production.

Obstruction of the lumen remains to be the main cause of appendicitis. It can be due to faecolith, foreign body, round worm, thread worm or due to purgatives. It may occur at any age but most frequently seen in second and third decades.

Pain is the most frequent symptom reported. Anatomical variation of the position of the appendix can alter the site of tenderness. The classic

sequence of pain, vomiting and temperature is known as Murphy's syndrome.

Tenderness is elicited over the McBurney's point. In cases of retrocecal appendicitis and pelvic appendicitis tenderness may not be apparent over the McBurney's point.

An elevated WBC count and neutrophilia is in favour of appendicitis⁷. Ultrasonography can identify blind ending, non compressible, aperistaltic structure in the right iliac fossa. Sonography has a sensitivity of about 85% and specificity of about 90%⁸.

Ultrasonography also has an additional benefit of diagnosing pelvic pathologies in young females of reproductive age group. It can offer valuable information regarding ovaries, fallopian tubes and uterus. However, ultrasonography is operator dependent.

Computed tomography is a valuable tool in diagnosing patients with lower abdominal pain. It has sensitivity of about 90% and specificity of about 90% in diagnosing appendicitis⁹.

Abdominal adhesions are bands of scar tissue that can be fibrous or fibrous fatty in nature. They are most commonly seen as a complication of previous abdominal surgery.

Adhesions can be due to

1. Multiple abdominal operations and previous postoperative intra-abdominal complications
2. Intra-abdominal inflammatory disease not treated with surgery
3. Post-radiation therapy

Adhesions are formed between interconnecting loops of bowel. Adhesions also attach loops of bowel to the parietal peritoneum, especially the abdominal wall and the sub-peritoneal organs.

Intra-abdominal adhesions are diagnosed based on indirect signs or abnormal visceral slide. Abdominal adhesions are rarely visible on CTCT scans¹⁰. It is helpful in the detection of adhesion-related complications, such as bowel obstruction or bowel ischaemia. An abrupt transition from dilated to collapsed bowel segments may be the only hint for the presence of adhesions that are depicted on CT scans.

Mesenteric lymphadenitis is the presence of three or more lymph nodes that are each 5 mm or greater in the short axis. Short axis diameter of >8 mm might be a more appropriate for defining mesenteric lymphadenopathy.

Vomiting and fever are the symptoms associated with mesenteric lymphadenitis. It mimics appendicitis. Clinically, it can be differentiated

from appendicitis by the presence of shifting tenderness also known as Klein's sign.

Enlarged mesenteric lymph nodes are also associated with a range of pathological conditions namely crohn's disease, gastroenteritis, appendicitis, yersinia, cat scratch disease and AIDS.

Mesenteric lymphadenitis is usually managed conservatively and the patients usually recover well.

Abdominal tuberculosis is one of the most prevalent forms of extra-pulmonary tuberculosis. Abdominal involvement had been reported to be 55%-90% in patients before the advent of specific anti-TB drugs. After the development of specific drugs, it was regressed to 25%. It has an insidious course. It does not have any specific laboratory, radiological or clinical findings.

Classification of abdominal tuberculosis

1. Peritoneal tuberculosis
2. Tubercular lymphadenopathy
3. Acute
4. Chronic
5. Fixed fibrotic type

6. Wet ascitic type
7. Dry plastic type
8. Visceral tuberculosis
9. Encysted/loculated type
10. Liver, pancreas, spleen etc.
11. Esophageal tuberculosis
12. Gastrointestinal tuberculosis
13. Duodenal tuberculosis
14. Gastric tuberculosis
15. Jejunal and ileocecal tuberculosis
16. Colorectal tuberculosis

Anti tubercular therapy remains the treatment of choice. Surgery is indicated in patients with intestinal obstruction, severe haemorrhage, bowel perforation and intra abdominal abscess.

Meckel's diverticulum is one of the most common congenital gastrointestinal anomaly. About 2-4% of patients with a Meckel's will subsequently develop complications.

Most common complications are intestinal hemorrhage, intestinal obstruction, and diverticulitis. These complications are most commonly present in children. In older adults, Meckel's diverticulitis is included in the differential diagnosis.

CT diagnosis of an uninflamed Meckel's diverticulum is difficult. It is due to the similar attenuation of the diverticulum and the bowel wall. Investigation of choice is technetium radio isotope scan. Laparoscopy can be used diagnostically as well as therapeutically.

Pelvic inflammatory disease (PID) is commonly seen in women attending the genitourinary clinic. It is due to the acute inflammation caused by micro-organisms colonising the endocervix, which ascend to the endometrium, fallopian tubes, and ovaries.

PID is a clinical diagnosis.. It initially involves cervicitis and progresses to endometritis eventually leading to salpingo-oophoritis.

Chronic lower abdominal pain following PID is due to the scarring, tissue damage, and adhesions formed from it. The nerves can be damaged or the structures can adhere to it. It results in painful stretching by activities such as exercise, sexual intercourse or passage of food through the bowel.

Conservative treatment includes administration of antibiotics, analgesics and anti inflammatory drugs.

Endometriosis is defined by the presence and proliferation of functional endometrial tissue containing both glands and stroma at sites outside the endometrial cavity. Most frequent sites of implantation being the pelvic viscera and peritoneum. However, adenomyosis is defined by the presence of endometrial glands within the myometrium. Adenomyosis can also cause chronic pain, especially dysmenorrhoea.

Many theories have been proposed to explain the pathogenesis of endometriosis. The mechanism of chronic pain from this condition is unclear. It can be due to the release of prostaglandins to the peritoneal surfaces by the products of menstruation and by the swelling and stretching of the tissue. It can also be due to nerve damage secondary to scarring that occurs around the implants. Endometriosis is common among women between the ages of 30 and 45 years.

Symptoms include deep dyspareunia, dysmenorrhoea, and constant pelvic pain. Laparoscopy is very much useful in diagnosing and treating endometriosis at the same sitting.

Ovarian remnant syndrome is seen after hysterectomy and bilateral salpingo-oophorectomy for severe endometriosis or pelvic inflammatory disease. It results from residual ovarian cortical tissue that is left back due to difficult surgical dissection during oophorectomy.

Ovarian cysts can also result in unilateral pelvic pain. Symptomatic ovarian cysts can be diagnosed and treated by laparoscopy at the same sitting. Adnexitis, hydrosalpinx and tuboovarian masses are common during the reproductive age groups.

Diverticula are small, bulging pouches that occur in the lining of bowel wall. They are most commonly seen in large intestine (colon). Diverticula are common after 40 years of age and are usually asymptomatic.

However, one or more of the pouches become inflamed or infected. It is known as diverticulitis. It can cause severe abdominal pain, fever, nausea and altered bowel habits.

The signs and symptoms of diverticulitis include:

- Pain,
- Nausea and vomiting.
- Abdominal tenderness.

- Fever.
- Constipation or, less commonly, diarrhea.

Diverticulitis is diagnosed with colonoscopy and computed tomography scans. It can be mild, severe and recurring. Mild diverticulitis is treated with rest, changes in diet and antibiotics. Severe or recurring diverticulitis might require surgery.

Mesenteric panniculitis is a disorder characterised by a chronic non-specific inflammation involving the adipose tissue present in the bowel mesentery.

The exact aetiology is not known. It can be due to autoimmunity, infection, trauma, ischaemia, prior abdominal surgery and neoplasm. Prevalence of mesenteric panniculitis is about 0.6%.

Sclerosing mesenteritis is classified into three types namely

- Mesenteric panniculitis
- Mesenteric lipodystrophy
- Retractable mesenteritis

Idiopathic inflammatory disorders namely, retroperitoneal fibrosis, sclerosing cholangitis, Riedel thyroiditis and orbital pseudotumour are

associated with it. CT plays an important role in diagnosing this condition and can be useful in distinguishing sclerosing mesenteritis from other forms of mesenteric diseases.

Carcinoma of the colon sometimes can present with chronic abdominal pain, loss of weight, loss of appetite and altered bowel habits.

Other extra intestinal causes of chronic abdominal pain should be borne in mind and a thorough search should be made before subjecting the patient to various investigations.

Chronic lower abdominal usually presents a challenging scenario to the surgeon. Role of laparoscopy in diagnosing these patients have been studied by many authors^{11, 12}. Diagnostic laparoscopy offers many advantages^{13, 14}. Almost 13% of the patients remain undiagnosed even after battery of sophisticated investigations¹⁵. The history and physical examination are the key elements determining the diagnostic workup for a particular patients.

Patients should be asked about the nature of the pain, onset, progression, radiation, aggravating and relieving factors. Associated symptoms such as nausea, vomiting, loss of weight, loss of appetite, altered bowel habits, burning micturition and white discharge per vaginally should be enquired.

Previous abdominal surgery should be enquired and noted. Abdomen should be thoroughly examined in a systematic manner. Any scar over the abdomen should not be missed. Renal angles, hernia orifices and external genitalia should be examined for any pathologies. Per rectal examination should be done and all female patients should undergo per vaginal examination.

Despite adequate clinical examination these group of patients fail to yield a definite diagnosis. Blood investigations are useful in diagnosing inflammatory conditions. Commonly used blood investigations include complete blood count, renal function tests and liver function tests.

Urinalysis and urine culture can help in diagnosing urolithiasis and urinary tract infections. Patients with history suggesting urological problems should be evaluated with x ray KUB, ultrasonography and CT KUB. If a definite diagnosis is made with these investigations, they should be managed accordingly.

Patients with history suggestive of lower gastro intestinal symptoms should be evaluated with colonoscopy and CT scanning.

Conditions involving the female reproductive tract such as adnexitis, symptomatic ovarian cysts, pelvic inflammatory diseases and endometriosis should be subjected to proper gynaecological examination and endovaginal ultrasound examination. Diagnostic laparoscopy can be

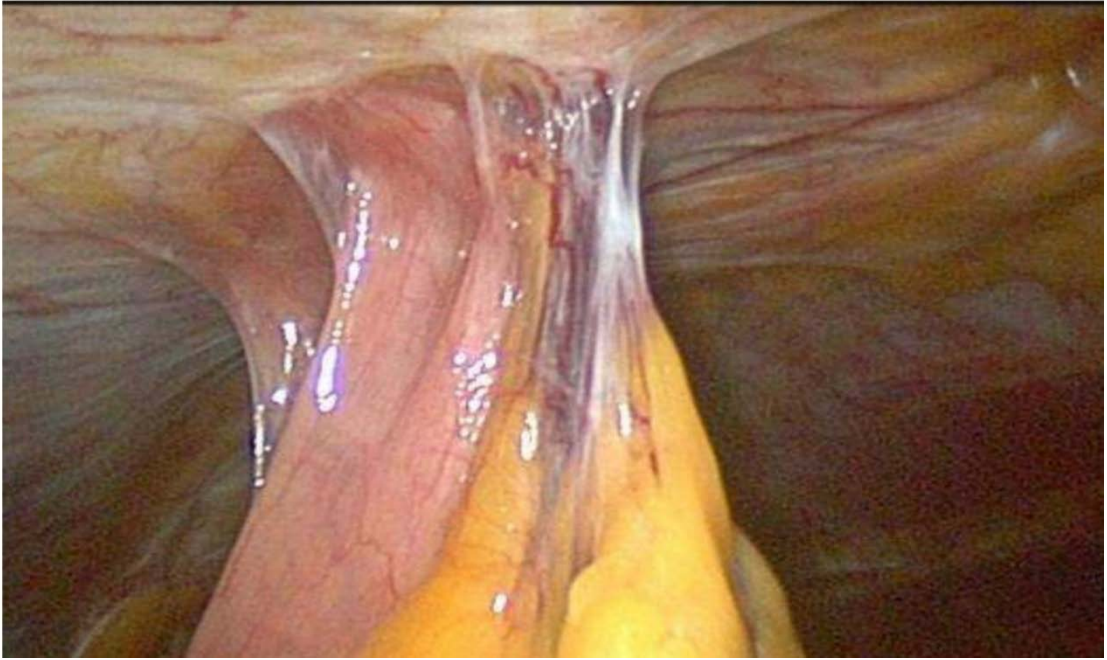
used in fertile women and it can avoid unnecessary appendectomies¹⁶. If needed CT evaluation can be done. If a definite diagnosis is made at any point, definite treatment is initiated.

Every effort should be made to rule out other causes such as orthopedic and neurological causes with the help of radiological and clinical examination.

About 13% of the patients remain undiagnosed even after careful evaluation with all sophisticated investigations such as clinical examination, x ray, ultrasonography and computed tomography.

Laparoscopy is a boon to these group of patients as it can be used for diagnosing as well as treating these group of patients with chronic lower abdominal pain. Diagnostic laparoscopy helps in avoiding unnecessary laparotomies. The use of diagnostic laparoscopy to study these patients have been studied by many authors^{17,18}. It helps the surgeons to visualize the internal organs with greater detail and helps in diagnosing conditions that are not apparent by other techniques.

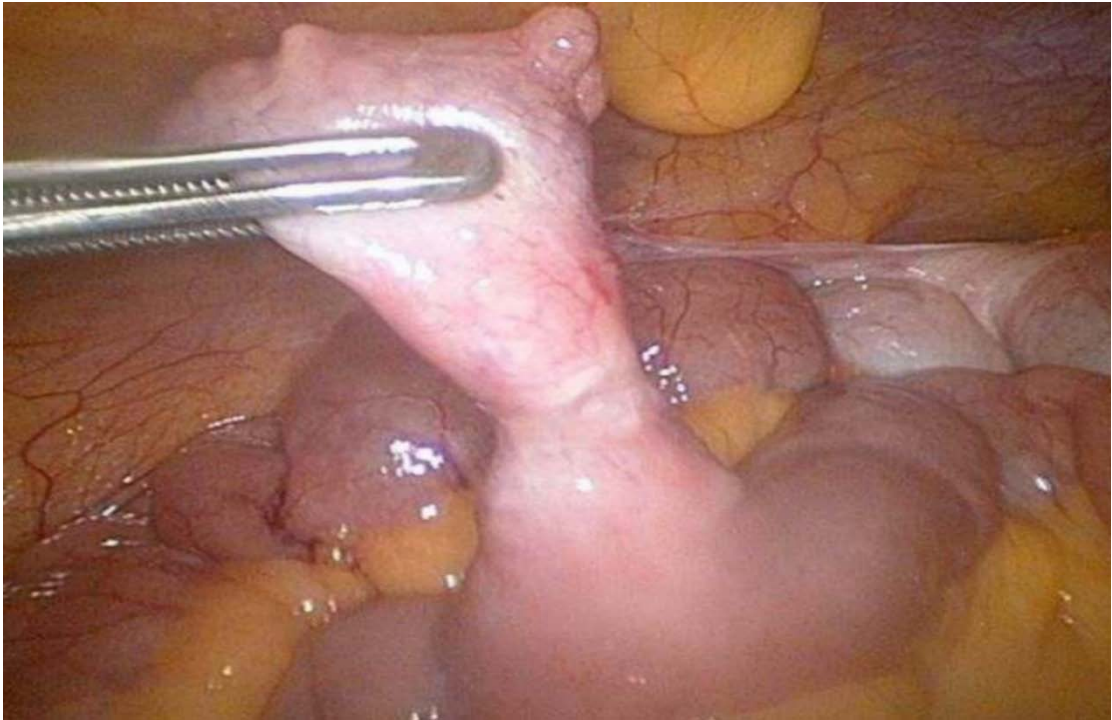
In the studies conducted by the previous authours, appendicitis, adhesions and abdominal tuberculosis form the majority of the diagnoses. Laparoscopy is helpful as these conditions can be treated laparoscopically if possible.



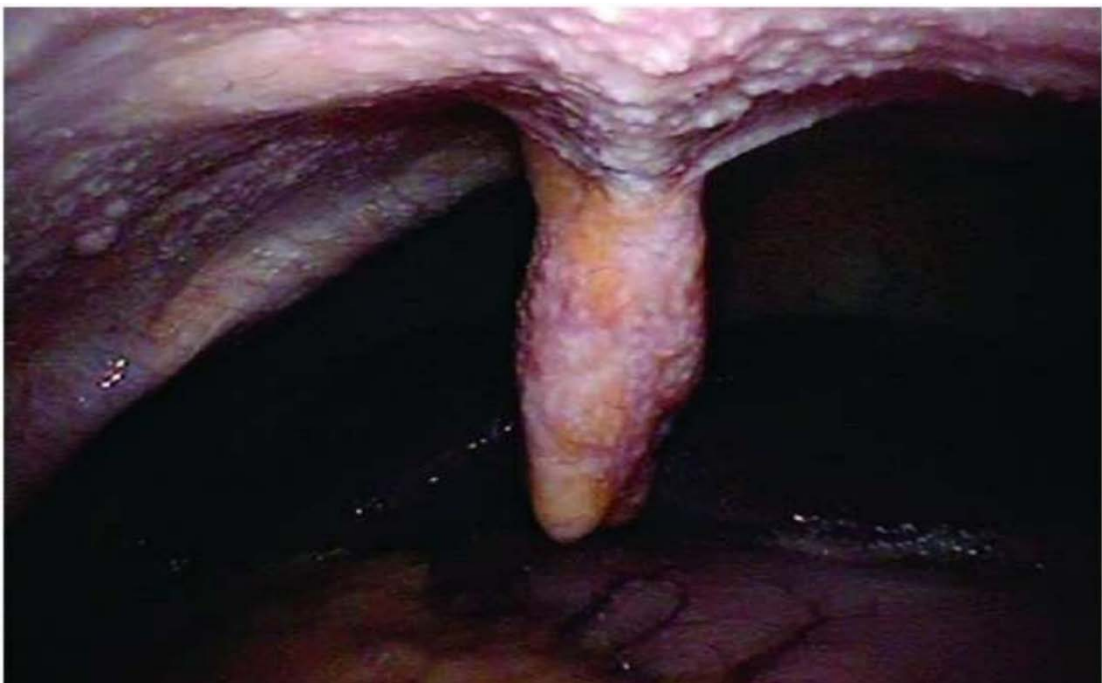
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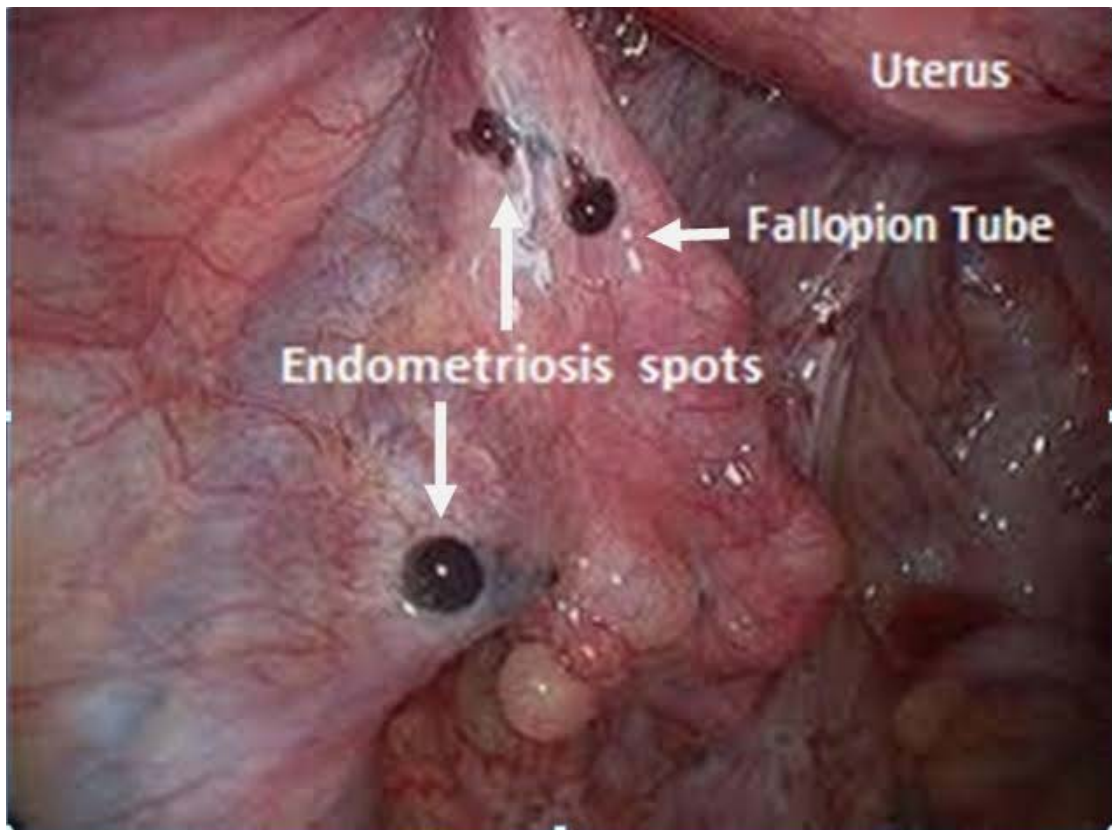
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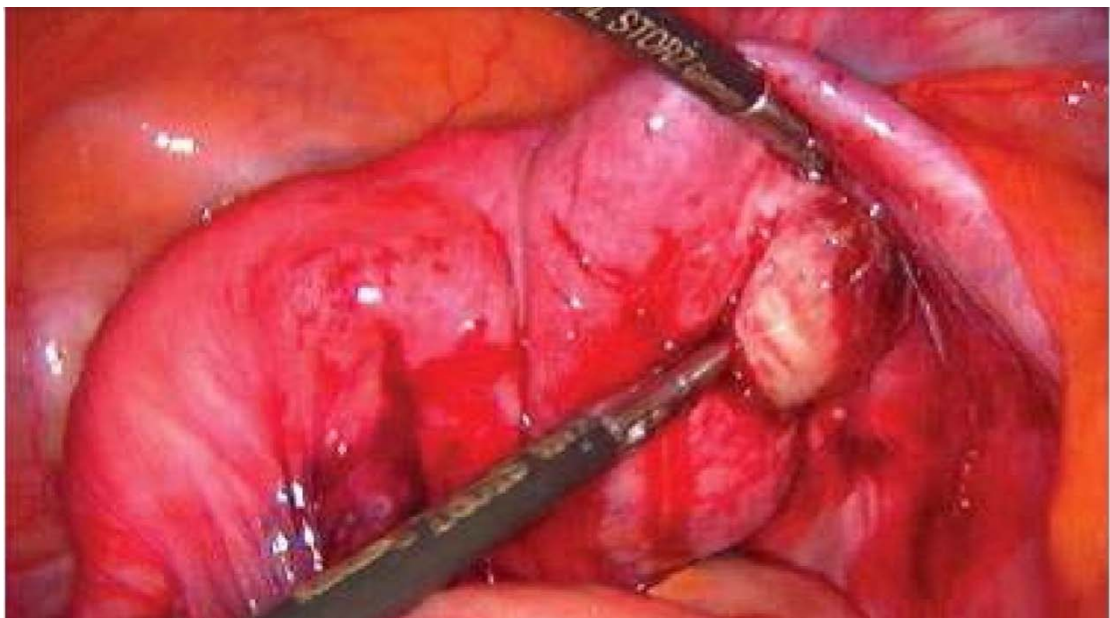
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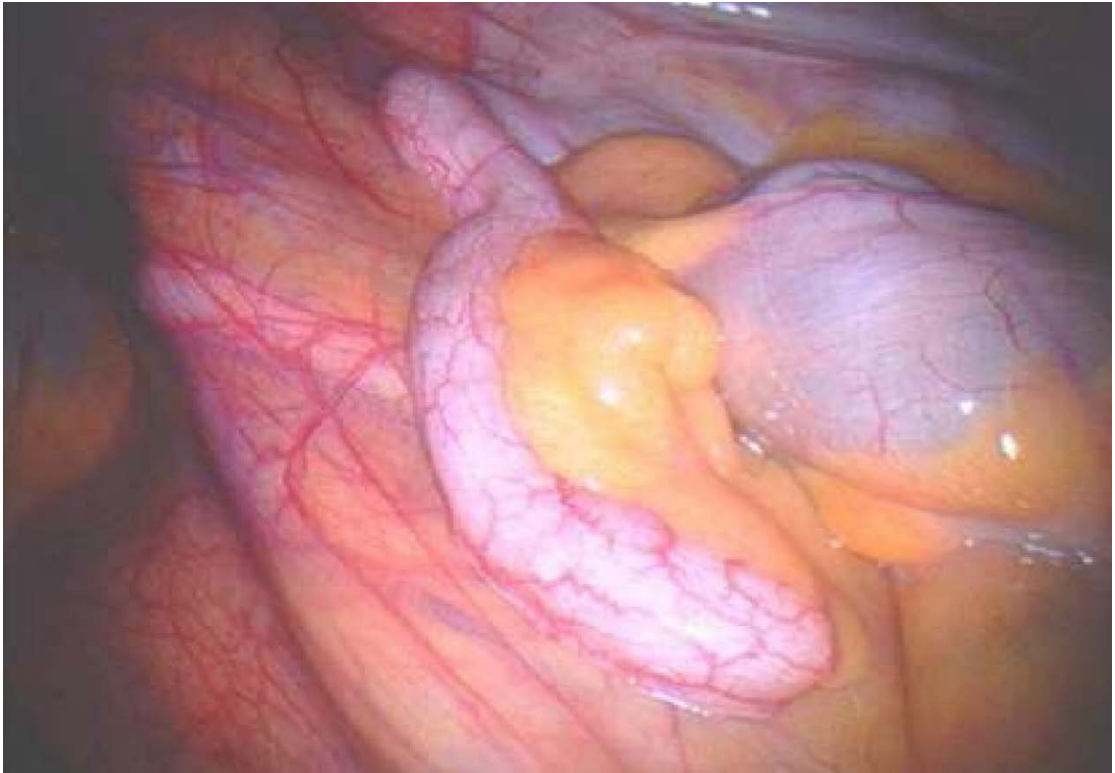
PERITONEAL TUBERCULOSIS



ENDOMETRIOSIS



OVARIAN CYST



NORMAL STUDY

DIAGNOSTIC LAPAROSCOPY

Laparoscopy is an operation performed in the abdomen or pelvis through small incisions with the aid of a camera. It aids in diagnosis or therapeutic interventions with a few small cuts in the abdomen. It has numerous advantages to the patient over an open procedure. Advantages include decreased pain due to smaller incisions, hemorrhaging and shorter recovery time.

It is also known as minimally invasive surgery, band aid surgery, or keyhole surgery. It is a modern surgical technique in which surgeries are performed through small incisions of size ranging from 0.5 to 1.5cm.

Advantages:

Reduced pain

Reduced bleeding

Shorter hospital stay

Shorter recovery time

The key element in this surgery is the use of a laparoscope which is a long fiber optic cable system which allows viewing of the affected area by connecting the cable from a more distant location.

Laparoscopic surgery involves operations within the abdominal or pelvic cavities. Keyhole surgery performed on the thoracic cavity or chest cavity is called thoracoscopic surgery.

There are two types of laparoscope

- A telescopic rod lens system. It is usually connected to a video camera.
- A digital laparoscope in which a miniature digital video camera is present at the end of the laparoscope.

The digital laparoscope is mainly used to improve the image quality of flexible endoscopes and it replaces traditional fiber scopes. However, laparoscopes are rigid endoscopes. It is required in clinical practice.

The rod-lens based laparoscopes are used overwhelmingly in practice, because of their fine optical resolution which is 50 μm typically and it is dependent on the aperture size that is used in the objective lens. The image quality is better than that of the digital camera.

Laparoscopic system also has a fiber optic cable system connected to a cold light source usually halogen or xenon. It is used to illuminate the operative field and it is inserted through a 5 mm or 10 mm cannula or trocar.

The abdomen is commonly insufflated with carbon dioxide gas which elevates the abdominal wall above the internal organs thus creating a working and viewing space. CO₂ is used because it is common to the human body which can be absorbed by human tissue and also gets removed by the respiratory system. CO₂ is also non-flammable.

This property is important because electrosurgical devices are commonly employed in laparoscopic procedures.

The laparoscopic approach is mainly intended to minimize post-operative pain and speed up recovery while maintaining an enhanced visual field for surgeons during surgery. In the last two decades, laparoscopic surgery has been adopted by various surgical sub-specialties due to improved patient outcomes.

Surgical sub specialities include gastrointestinal surgery, bariatric surgery, gynecologic surgery and urology.

Disadvantages of laparoscopic surgery includes the restricted vision, the difficulty in handling of the instruments because of lack of hand eye coordination, the lack of tactile perception and the limited working area.

Evolution in laparoscopic instrumentation and introduction of therapeutic laparoscopy has revived the benefits of diagnostic laparoscopy.

With the advent of modern instrumentations such as laparoscopic ultrasonography and biopsy forceps, the role of diagnostic laparoscopy is redefined. It has proved its diagnostic yield and safety.

Diagnostic laparoscopy should not replace the pre operative workup and all patients should be carefully evaluated with ultrasonography and computed tomography scanning.

OPERATING ROOM SET-UP:

The proper hardware and instruments are important for doing a safe laparoscopic surgery. Most large medical centers have dedicated interventional laparoscopic operating theatres.

Centres should have sufficient back up of instrumentation to cover for any equipment failure. Surgeons frequently change the position of the patient so as to enhance exposure and visualization. In laparoscopic bariatric procedures, the weight limit of the operating room table must be checked.

LAPAROSCOPIC INSTRUMENTATION

1. Optical Devices
2. Equipment for creating / maintaining domain
3. Instruments for Access
4. Operative instruments
5. Energy sources
6. Tissue approximation/ hemostasis
7. Miscellaneous

1. Optical Devices

Telescope:

This telescope is made of surgical stainless steel. It contains an optical lens train consists of precisely aligned glass lenses and spacers. This is known as rod lens system.

It has the objective lens, which is present at the distal tip of the rigid endoscope and it determines the viewing angle. The light post is present at right angles to the shaft, allowing the attachment of the light cable to the telescope.

The eyepiece or the ocular lens is present outside the patient's body. It attaches to a camera to view the images on a video monitor.

Telescopes or laparoscopes has various sizes namely 10mm , 5mm, 2-3mm needle scopes.

Telescopes have visualization capabilities such as zero degree forward viewing, 30 or 45degree viewing telescope, zero degree telescope with 6mm instrument channel.

Light source:

White light illumination is delivered by a high-intensity xenon, mercury, or halogen lamp. It is delivered by a fiber optic bundle.

Light cable:

Light is transmitted from the lamp to the telescope with the help of cables.

There are two types of cables:

Fiberoptic

Fluid

Fiber optic cables are flexible. They do not transmit a precise light spectrum. Fluid cables can transmit more light. They transmit a complete spectrum of light. They are more rigid compared to the fiber optic cables. Fluid cables is sterilized by soaking and not by gas sterilization.

Video Camera:

Laparoscopic cameras have the solid state silicon computer chip or charge-coupled device. This chip or the charge coupled device functions as an electronic retina.

It comprises of an array of light-sensitive silicon elements. Silicon, when exposed to light, emits an electrical charge. These electrical charges can then be amplified, transmitted, displayed, and recorded. Each silicon element contributes one unit (a pixel) to the total image.

The resolution or clarity of the image is determined by the number of pixels or light receptors present on the chip.

Standard cameras used in laparoscopic surgeries contain 250,000 to 380,000 pixels. The single chip camera system has a composite transmission implying that the three colors, red, blue and green are compressed on a single chip.

The three chip camera system contains a separate chip for each color for higher resolution. The clarity of the image depends on the resolution capability of the monitor and the recording medium.

Standard consumer-grade video monitors have 350 lines of horizontal resolution. Laparoscopic surgery uses monitors having 700 lines of horizontal resolution.

Television Monitor:

High-resolution video monitors are necessary for the suitable reproduction of endoscopic image. The resolution capability of the monitor should match the resolution capability of the video camera. Three chip cameras system requires monitors having 700 lines of horizontal resolution to appreciate the improved resolution of extra chip sensors.

Equipment for Gas insufflation:**CO2 Insufflator:**

The creation of working space within the abdominal cavity is generally by using carbon dioxide. It is delivered by an automatic, high flow, pressure regulated insufflator. Carbon di oxide is the preferred gas of choice.

Advantages of using carbondioxide include

Low risk of gas embolism

Low toxicity to peritoneal tissues

Rapid reabsorption

Low cost

Inhibits combustion.

The insufflator device delivers CO₂ at a flow rate of up to 20 liters / min. Insufflator regulates the intra-abdominal pressure. It stops the delivery of CO₂ when the intra abdominal pressure exceeds the predetermined level.

It is usually set at 12 to 15 mm Hg. It is kept at this level to reduce the risk of hypercarbia, acidosis and adverse hemodynamic and pulmonary effects that occur at higher pressure. This device has an alarm and it sounds when the pre-determined pressure limit is exceeded.

Nitrous oxide is not used because of unpredictable absorption characteristics and its ability to support combustion. Though helium gas is inert, it is not used because of significant risk of gas embolism.

Gasless laparoscopy:

Gasless laparoscopy has theoretical advantages in some high-risk patients with compromised cardio-respiratory function and decreased diaphragmatic splinting.

It allows continuous suction. Some conventional open instruments can also be used in gasless laparoscopy. Disadvantages are sub optimal exposure and localized trauma to the abdominal wall and parietal peritoneum.

Instruments for Access:

Veress needle- closed method:

The Veress needle is used to create pneumo peritoneum in closed method prior to the insertion of trocar. It has an outer sharp cutting needle and inner blunt spring-loaded obturator.

Resistance offered by the fascia, during insertion of the veress needle into the peritoneal cavity, causes the blunt tip to retract backwards thus enabling the penetration by the sharp outer needle.

The blunt stylet springs forward beyond the cutting edge when the cutting edge penetrates freely into the peritoneal cavity to prevent injury to the intraperitoneal structures.

The inner stylet is hollow and it has a side hole near its tip which allows for air insufflation.

Open access trocars:**Hasson's cannula:**

The Hasson's cannula uses an open cutdown technique. Hasson's cannula has a conical blunt tip which is fitted into the cut down site. Hasson's cannula is buttressed in place with fascial sutures which are attached to the wings of the cannula.

Optical trocar:

It allows visualization of the abdominal tissues when the blade cuts through the abdominal wall in layers.

Operative Instruments**Trocars:**

Laparoscopic port has an outer hollow sheath or cannula. Cannula has a valve to prevent the escape of CO₂ gas and a side port for insufflation of gas. Inner removable trocar goes through the outer sheath.

Trocars are available in various diameters and sizes and the most commonly used trocars are 10mm and 5 mm being trocars. Disposable trocars are also available and are equipped with safety shields.

Retraction

Exposure may be achieved by the following namely

Pneumoperitoneum

Gravity i.e. tilting the table

Instruments for retraction.

Instrumental retraction:

Large grasping instruments are used for retraction of the tissues.. Specifically designed fan-shaped retractors are used for liver retraction.

Mechanical Dissecting instruments:

Laparoscopic instruments are mostly 30 to 40 cm in length with a shaft diameter of 3 to 10mm. Shafts of those instruments are insulated with non-conductive material. The working tip is metallic to allow diathermy through coagulation adapters. Most laparoscopic instruments which have atraumatic tips. They have the mechanism to rotate 360 degrees for optimal adjustment of the instruments.

Forceps:

Grasping forceps are used for holding tissues and to achieve haemostasis and dissection. Dissecting forceps can be straight or curved with blunt tips.

Roticulators are instruments that can articulate to about 80 degrees in areas which are not easily reached. Grasping instruments come with either atraumatic or toothed jaws.

These instruments have a ratchet mechanism on their handles for locking onto the tissues to prevent fatigue when the surgeon is holding tissues for a long time.

Bowel and lung clamps:

Tubular structures, bowel and lung can be held gently with instruments designed specifically for the same namely Endo Babcocks, Endo-Lung and Bowel Clamp.

Scissors:

Scissors can be used for dissecting, mobilizing and cutting tissues, which include straight and curved types. Dissecting scissors have adapters for diathermy. Hook scissors must always be kept in view while entering and exiting as it damage the structures easily.

Energy Sources**Electrosurgery:**

Electrocautery refers to usage of direct current (electrons flowing in one direction) whereas electrosurgery uses alternating current.

In electrocautery, the current does not enter the patient's body. Only the wire which gets heated comes in contact with tissue.

In electrosurgery, the patient is included in the circuit and current enters the patient's body.

The electrosurgical generator is the source of the electron flow and voltage. The circuit consists of the following

- Generator
- active electrode
- patient
- return electrode.

Grounding pathways can be achieved either by using the OR table, stirrups or equipment. The patient's tissue provides the impedance which produces heat. Nerve and muscle stimulation cease at 100,000 cycles/second and so the electrosurgery can be performed safely at frequencies well above 100 kHz.

An electrosurgical generator takes 60 cycles current and amplifies it to over 300,000 cycles per second. This frequency causes minimal neuromuscular stimulation and it has no risk of electrocution.

Bipolar:

In bipolar, both the active electrode and return electrodes are present at the site of surgery. The tips of the forceps perform the active and return electrode functions. Only the tissue grasped at the site of surgery is included in the circuit.

Monopolar:

In monopolar the active electrode is present in the wound. The patient return electrode is attached on the patient. In this circuit, the

current must flow through the patient to the patient return electrode to complete the circuit.

There are four components to the monopolar circuit:

Generator

Active Electrode

Patient

Patient Return Electrode

Electrosurgical generators can generate constant and intermittent electrical waveforms. Constant waveform is used for cutting and intermittent waveform is used for coagulation. This interrupted waveform will produce less heat. Instead of tissue vaporization occurring in cutting, a coagulum is produced while coagulating the tissues.

Direct Coupling:

Direct coupling occurs when the surgeon accidentally activates the generator when an active electrode is present near another metal instrument.

The secondary instrument will become energized. This energy seeks a pathway to complete the circuit to the patient return electrode resulting in significant patient injury.

Insulation Failure:

Coagulation waveform uses high voltage. This voltage or “push” can spark through compromised insulation and can also “blow holes” in weak insulation. Breaks in insulation can create an alternate route for the current to flow. If this current is concentrated, it can cause significant injury.

Capacitive Coupling:

Capacitor occurs whenever a nonconductor separates two conductors. During laparoscopy, an “inadvertent capacitor” maybe created by the surgical instruments.

The conductive active electrode is surrounded by nonconductive insulation which is in turn surrounded by a conductive metal cannula. A capacitor creates an electrostatic field between the two conductors.

As a result, current in one conductor can induce a current in the second conductor through the electrostatic field.

Most potential problems can be avoided by following:

- Inspect insulation carefully
- Use lowest possible power setting
- Use a low voltage waveform (cut)

Use brief intermittent activation vs. prolonged activation

Do not activate in close proximity or direct contact with another instrument

Use bipolar electrosurgery when appropriate

Select an all-metal cannula system

Do not use hybrid cannula systems

The electrosurgical unit should not be used in the presence of flammable agents (i.e., alcohol and/or tincture-based agents)

Avoid oxygen-enriched environments.

Always use an insulated safety holster to store active electrodes when not in use.

Argon-Enhanced Electrosurgery:

It uses a stream of argon gas to improve the effectiveness the electrosurgical current. Argon gas is inert.

It is noncombustible. Electrosurgical current easily ionizes argon gas and it makes the argon gas more conductive than air. This highly conductive stream of ionized gas provides the electrical current an efficient pathway.

Advantages

- Noncombustible
- Easily ionized by RF energy
- Creates bridge between electrode and tissue
- Heavier than air
- Displaces nitrogen and oxygen
- Inert

Ultrasonic Energy:

The Harmonic scalpel uses ultrasonic energy form. It allows both cutting and coagulation at the precise point of impact and it results in minimal lateral thermal damage to the tissues. It is used for cutting, coagulation and to achieve hemostasis.

Coagulation occurs by means of protein denaturation when the blade, vibrating at 55,500 Hz, couples with protein, denaturing it to form a coagulum that seals small vessels. Secondary heat is produced when the effect is prolonged which helps in sealing larger vessels.

It offers greater precision in tight spaces near vital structures. Fewer instrument changes are needed, less tissue charring and desiccation occur, and visibility in the surgical field is improved.

Cutting speed and coagulation are inversely related. With ultrasound technology, the balance between cutting and coagulation is in the hands of the surgeon.

Laparoscopic ligating suture delivery system:

A Pre-tied sliding knot with a loop is available with nylon carrier rod to ligate stump like structures or tubular structures after cutting. The push rod and suture loop are inserted laparoscopically via a hollow reducing sleeve; the suture is then looped around the structure to be ligated and the knot is slid down to close the loop. They are useful in appendicectomy.

Needle drivers:

A number of laparoscopic needle holders are available for laparoscopic suturing with either spring loaded or ratcheted –handle mechanisms. Endo stich is a 10mm disposable suturing device.

The needle features a sharp tapering point at each end with suture attachment at the center of the needle. The double-ended needle is passed between the two jaws of the suturing device.

Advantages include easy introduction, atraumatic needle manipulation, good security and easy accurate needle placement.

Disadvantage is that it is difficult to manipulate the thickness of tissue through with needle passes.

Clip Applicators:

Clip appliers are used for ligating blood vessels and other tubular structures. Disposable clip appliers contain up to 20 clips, whereas reusable clip appliers carry one clip at a time. Clips are made of titanium though now absorbable clips are also available.

Mechanical Stapling Instruments:

Laparoscopic staplers are modifications of open surgical staplers. Staplers are used for transecting and anastomosing bowel, transecting mesentery etc.

Multifire Endo GIA:

The instrument's knife cuts between two triple staggered rows of staples. TA instrument differs from GIA as it only staples and doesn't cut. A range of staple lengths (2.5-3.8mm) is available depending on the thickness of the tissue to be divided.

Miscellaneous Aspiration / Irrigation probes:

These are essential for laparoscopic procedures in order to maintain a clear operative field. Irrigation and aspiration channels may be incorporated into surgical instruments.

Hand Assisted Laparoscopic surgery:

The Hand Access Device is intended to provide extracorporeal extension of pneumoperitoneum and abdominal access for the surgeon during laparoscopic surgery.

It is used in surgeries where entry of the surgeon's hand may facilitate the procedure. It is also used for extraction of large specimens.

Organ Extraction devices:**Endo-Catch:**

These are pre loaded specimen retrieval pouches made of strong material. This material is impervious to cancer cells. The mouth of the pouch is brought out of the incision site and opened following which the specimen is extracted. The pouch itself must not be pulled out against resistance as it may tear with undue force.

Tissue Morcellators:

These are used to reduce the size of the resected specimen prior to retrieval. It may render pathological examination more difficult.

Space creators:

Balloon dissector is a space dissector which functions when saline or air is instilled into the pre-shaped balloon inserted into the intended region. These are used for laparoscopic extraperitoneal surgery

eg hernia repair, endoscopic neck surgery, subfascial endoscopic ligation of perforators veins, retroperitoneal surgery, etc.

Contraindications:

- Unstable cardio pulmonary status
- Coagulopathy
- Generalized peritonitis
- Acute bowel obstruction
- Abdominal wall infection

Relative contraindications:

- Chronic cardio pulmonary disorder
- Prior abdominal surgeries
- Abdominal hernias
- Obesity
- Tense ascites

Complications

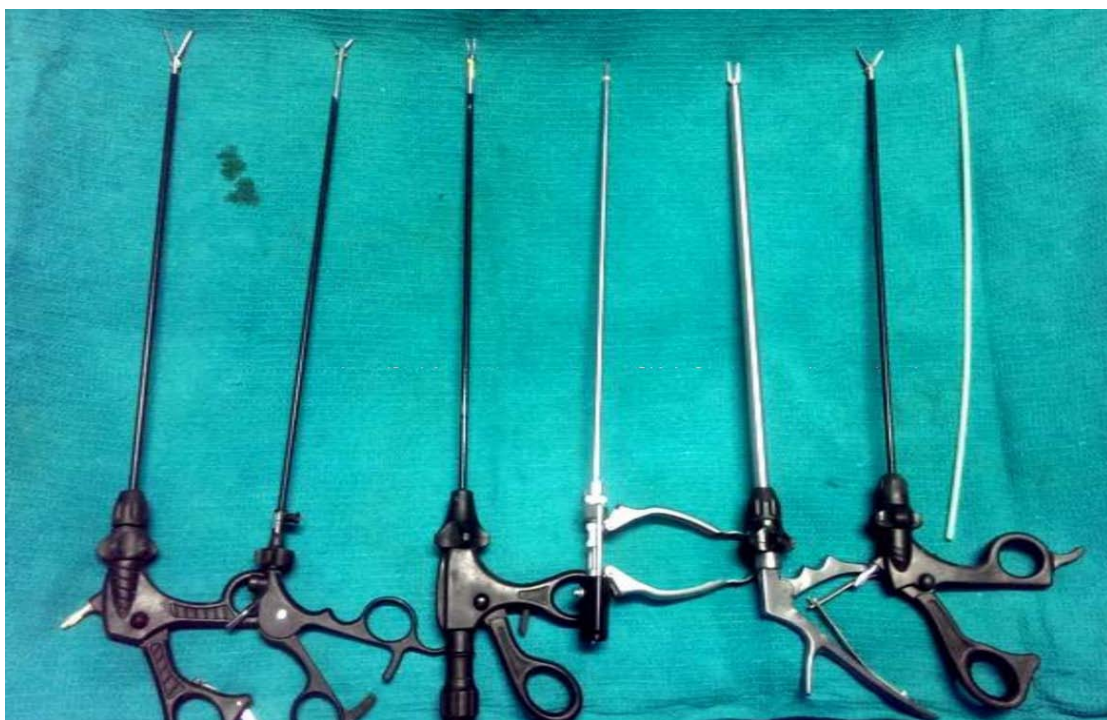
- Emphysema
- Bowel perforation
- Localized pneumoperitoneum
- Bleeding gas embolism
- Mediastinal emphysema
- Major vessel injury



VERESS METHOD



HASSON'S METHOD



Laparoscope Instruments



Patient prepared and draped



Laparoscopic Unit



Trocar Sheath



Harmonic Scalpel



Fan Retractor



Endo Bag



Laparoscope and Light cable

MATERIALS AND METHODS

MATERIALS AND METHODS:

Source (study population):

The patients admitted in Govt. Kilpauk Medical College Hospital including Govt. Royapettah Hospitals, Chennai at Department of General Surgery who are having undiagnosed chronic lower abdominal pain.

Study period:

March 2018 to August 2018

INCLUSION CRITERIA :

- Patients with undiagnosed chronic lower abdominal pain for greater than 3 months duration.
- Patients with or without previous abdominal surgeries.
- Patients of both sexes.
- Patient of age group 18 to 65 years.

EXCLUSION CRITERIA

- Patients with established diagnosis after laboratory and radiological investigations.
- Patients with comorbid conditions.
- Patients with acute abdomen and peritonitis
- Patients with functional bowel diseases.

METHODOLOGY

In this study, patients with chronic lower abdominal pain for greater than 3 months are studied. Detailed history obtained from the patients including the previous abdominal surgeries. Data are collected in proforma. These patients are examined clinically.

Blood investigations such as complete blood count, renal function tests, liver function tests, urine routine and urine culture are done to find the cause of chronic lower abdominal pain.

If the cause is not diagnosed by above investigations then radiological imaging such as x ray, ultrasound abdomen and pelvis and CECT abdomen and pelvis are done in a sequential manner to find the cause. Additional investigations such as colonoscopy are done according to the patient symptoms.

If the cause is diagnosed at any point during the above mentioned investigations, the patients will be excluded from the study.

Only those patients who remain undiagnosed even after all these above mentioned investigations are included in the study. Patients with established diagnosis, co morbid conditions and acute peritonitis are excluded from the study.

A proforma will be used to record the socio-demographic data of the patients along with clinical findings, investigations, laparoscopic findings, diagnosis, and complications

All patients included for the study are informed about the rationale of using diagnostic laparoscopy to find the cause of undiagnosed chronic lower abdominal pain. Informed consent is obtained from patients who are willing to undergo diagnostic laparoscopy.

Pre operative preparation is done by anxiolytics, sedatives and bowel enema. Standard diagnostic laparoscopic procedure is undertaken. All the quadrants of the abdomen are visualized in a sequential manner. Solid organs, small bowel and large bowel are visualized and pathology if any is identified. Ovaries, fallopian tubes and uterus are examined for any pathology in female patients.

Appendix is visualized in all patients and if any pathology identified is managed accordingly. If possible, pathologies that can be treated by laparoscopy will be treated or managed accordingly.

Various conditions leading to chronic lower abdominal pain that are observed in the diagnostic laparoscopy are documented.

The diagnostic value of the laparoscopy is analyzed by assessing the proportion of cases in which the cause of the chronic lower abdominal pain gets identified. Further the percentage of the various causes leading to chronic lower abdominal pain are studied.

OBSERVATION AND DATA ANALYSIS

In this study, 85 patients with undiagnosed chronic lower abdominal pain are evaluated with diagnostic laparoscopy and the results are as follows:

TABLE 1: AGE DISTRIBUTION

| S.NO | AGE DISTRIBUTION (in years) | NO. OF SUBJECTS | PERCENTAGE |
|-------------|--|----------------------------|-------------------|
| 1. | 18-25 | 10 | 12% |
| 2. | 26-35 | 39 | 46% |
| 3. | 36-45 | 20 | 24% |
| 4. | 46-55 | 7 | 8% |
| 5. | 56-65 | 9 | 10% |
| | TOTAL | 85 | 100% |

It can be observed that out of 85 patients, 26 – 35 years age group patients accounted for 39 patients which accounted for about 46% of the patients.

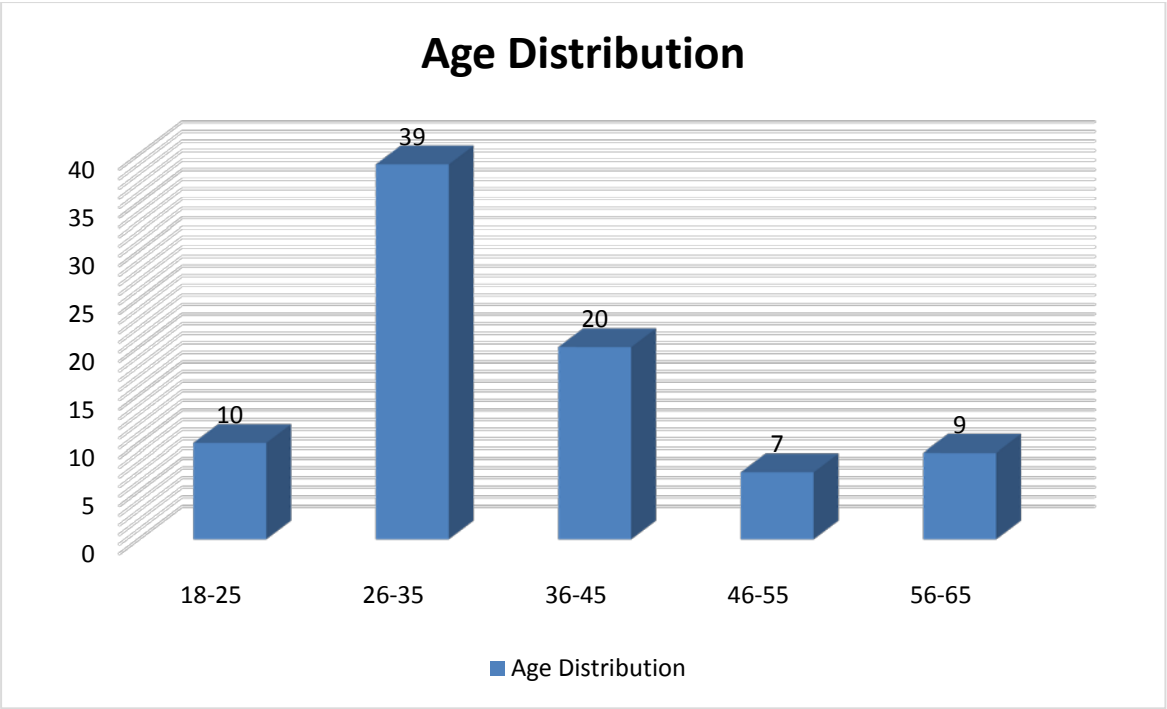
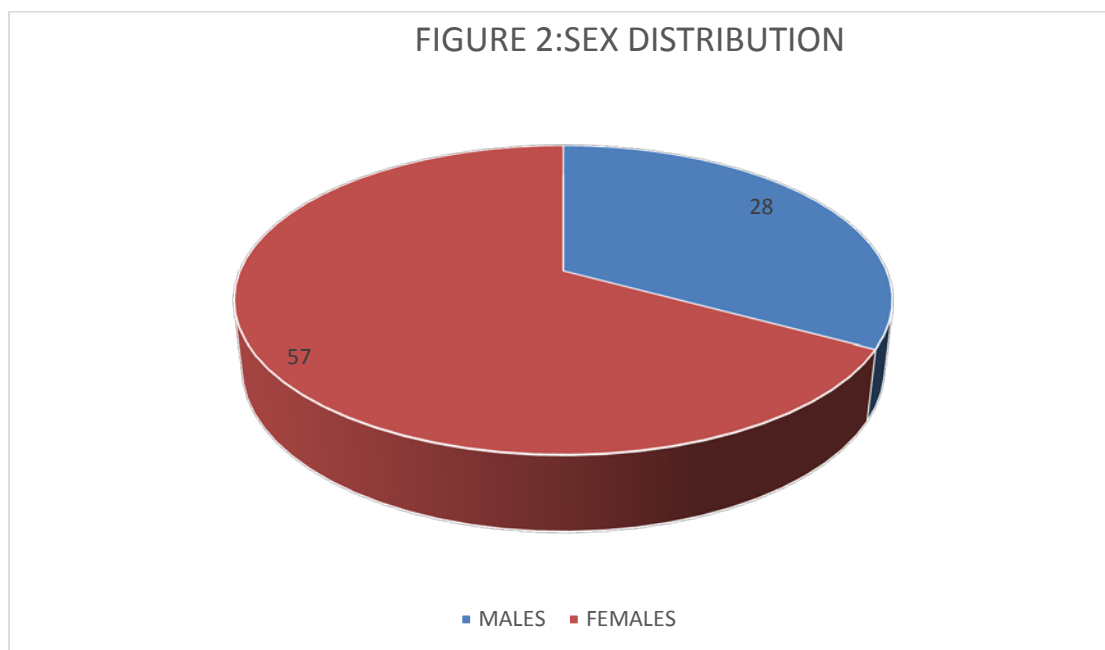


FIGURE 1: AGE DISTRIUTION AMONG STUDY SUBJECTS

TABLE NO: 2 SEX DISTRIBUTION

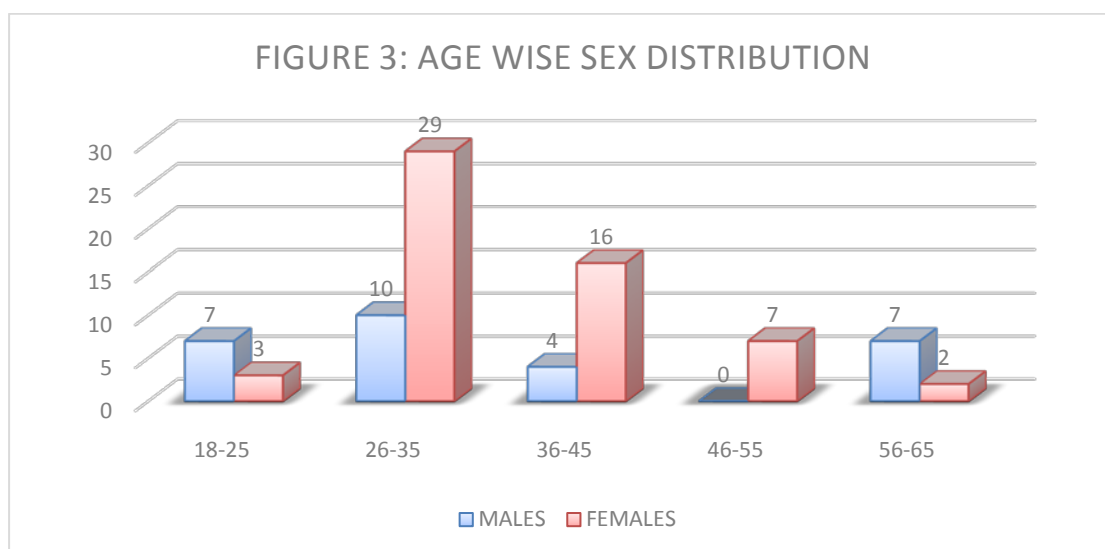
| | NUMBER | PERCENTAGE |
|---------|--------|------------|
| MALES | 28 | 33 |
| FEMALES | 57 | 67 |
| TOTAL | 85 | 100 |



It can be observed that 57 out of 85 patients are females and account for about 67% and 28 out of 85 patients are males and account for about 33%.

TABLE 3: AGE WISE SEX DISTRIBUTION

| S.NO | AGE (in years) | NO.OF MALES | PERCENTAGE | NO. OF FEMALES | PERCENTAGE |
|------|----------------|-------------|------------|----------------|------------|
| 1. | 18-25 | 7 | 8 | 3 | 3.5 |
| 2. | 26-35 | 10 | 12 | 29 | 34 |
| 3. | 36-45 | 4 | 5 | 16 | 19 |
| 4. | 46-55 | 00 | 00 | 07 | 8 |
| 5. | 56-65 | 07 | 8 | 2 | 2.5 |
| | TOTAL | 28 | 33 | 57 | 67 |



As observed above, 10 out of 28 male patients and 29 out of 58 female patients belonged to 26-36 years age group.

TABLE NO:4 ASSOCIATED SYMPTOMS

| SYMPTOMS | MALES | FEMALES | TOTAL |
|-------------------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|
| NIL | 7 | 8 | 15 |
| NAUSEA | 11 | 13 | 24 |
| VOMITING | 8 | 9 | 17 |
| FEVER | 14 | 5 | 19 |
| WHITE DISCHARGE | 00 | 5 | 05 |
| BURNING MICTURITION | 2 | 11 | 13 |
| DYSMENORRHOEA | 00 | 6 | 06 |
| LOSS OF APPETITE | 10 | 3 | 13 |
| LOSS OF WEIGHT | 11 | 4 | 15 |
| ABDOMINAL DISTENTION | 00 | 2 | 02 |
| CONSTIPATION | 00 | 4 | 04 |
| CHILLS | 00 | 3 | 03 |

FIGURE 4: ASSOCIATED SYMPTOMS

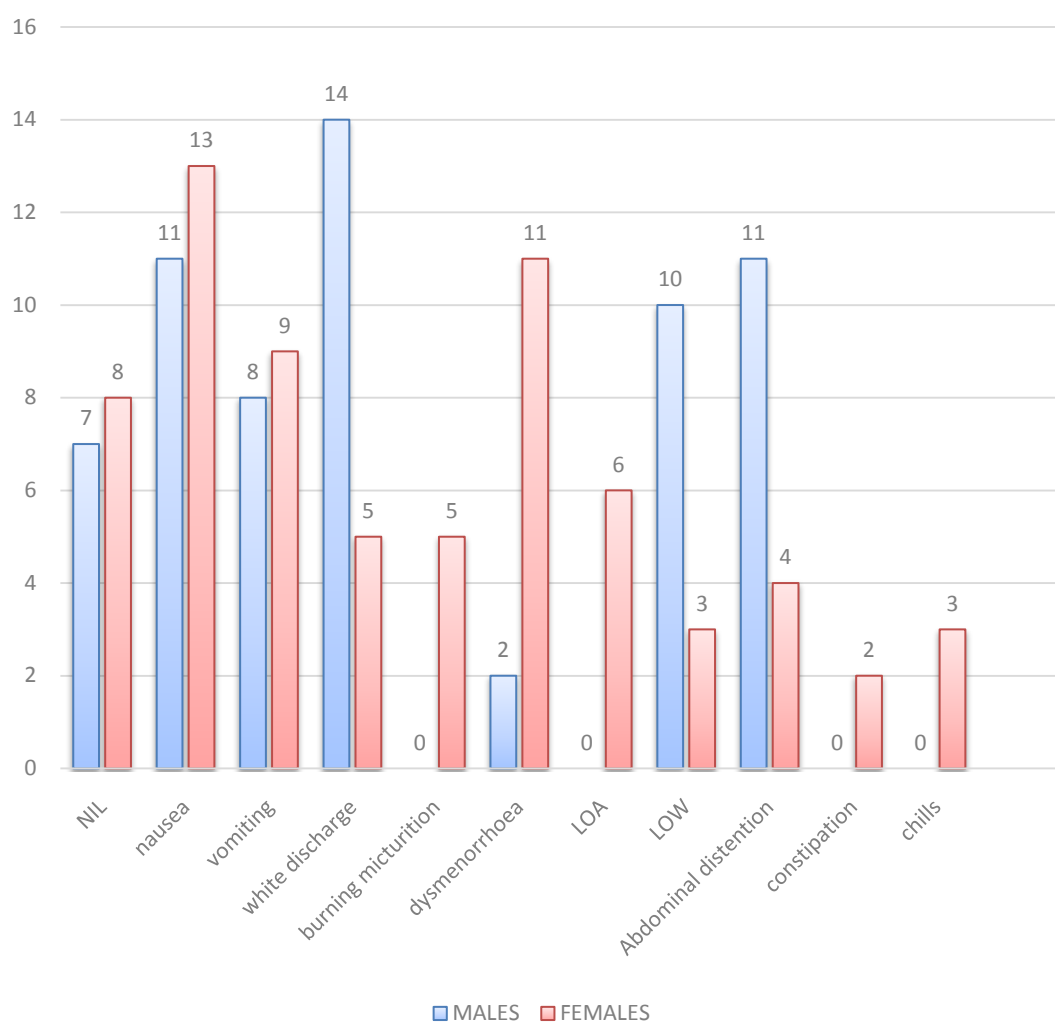


TABLE 5: DIAGNOSTIC LAPAROSCOPIC FINDINGS

| FINDINGS | MALES | FEMALES | TOTAL | PERCENTAGE |
|-------------------------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|-------------------|
| Normal study | 02 | 02 | 04 | 4.7 |
| Subacute appendicitis | 20 | 17 | 37 | 43.5 |
| Adhesions | 01 | 20 | 21 | 24.8 |
| Mesenteric panniculitis | 01 | 00 | 01 | 1.2 |
| Adnexitis | 00 | 02 | 02 | 2.3 |
| Mesenteric lymphadenopathy | 01 | 01 | 02 | 2.3 |
| Ileocecal tuberculosis | 01 | 00 | 01 | 1.2 |
| Hydrosalpinx | 00 | 04 | 04 | 4.7 |
| Peritoneal tubercles | 01 | 07 | 08 | 9.5 |
| Ovarian cyst | 00 | 02 | 02 | 2.3 |
| Endometriosis | 00 | 02 | 02 | 2.3 |
| Meckel's diverticulitis | 01 | 00 | 01 | 1.2 |

Figure 5: Findings in diagnostic laparoscopy

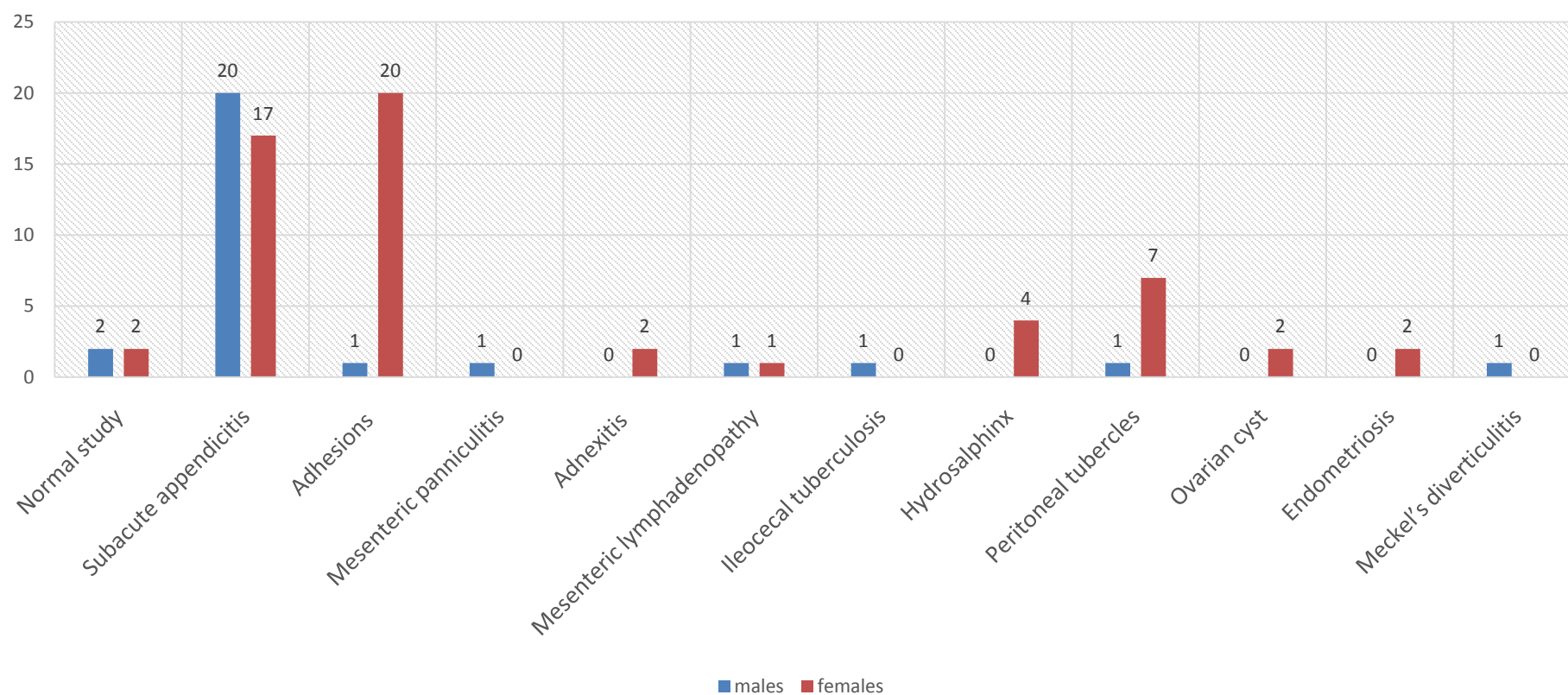
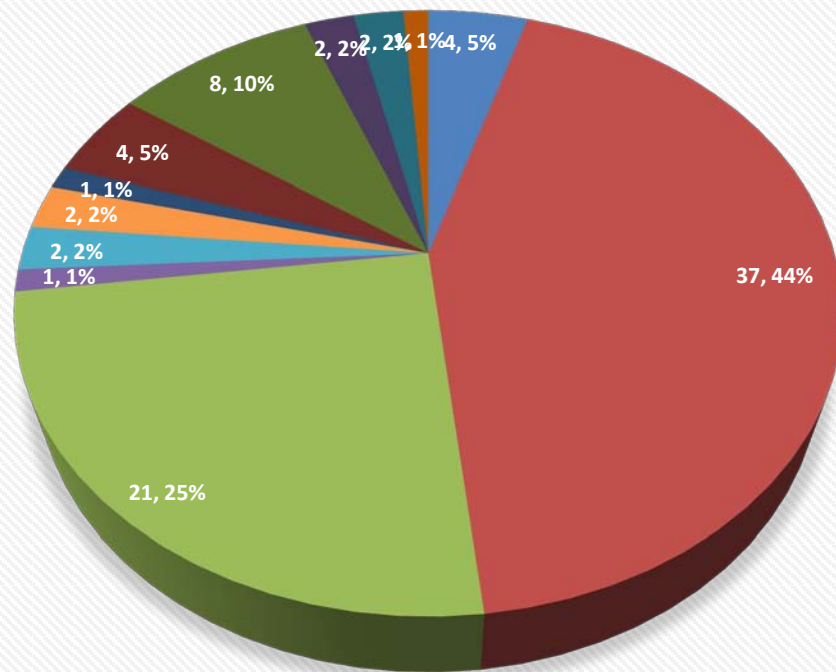


FIGURE 6: CAUSES OF CHRONIC LOWER ABDOMINAL PAIN



- | | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| ■ Normal study | ■ Subacute appendicitis | ■ Adhesions |
| ■ Mesenteric panniculitis | ■ Adnexitis | ■ Mesenteric lymphadenopathy |
| ■ Ileocecal tuberculosis | ■ Hydrosalpinx | ■ Peritoneal tubercles |
| ■ Ovarian cyst | ■ Endometriosis | ■ meckel's diverticulitis |

TABLE 6: SUBACUTE APPENDICITIS AGE DISTRIBUTION

| Age in years | Sub acute appendicitis | Percentage |
|--------------|------------------------|------------|
| 18-25 | 06 | 16.2 |
| 26-35 | 20 | 54 |
| 36-45 | 08 | 21.6 |
| 46-55 | 00 | 00 |
| 56-65 | 03 | 08.2 |

Figure 7: subacute appendicitis - age distribution

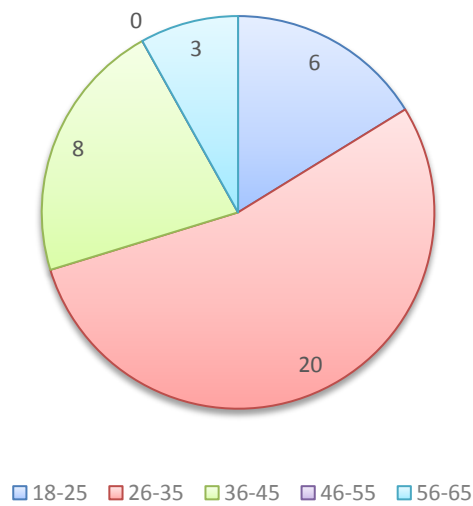


TABLE 7: ADHESIONS – AGE DISTRIBUTION

| Age in years | ADHESIONS | PERCENTAGE |
|--------------|-----------|------------|
| 18-25 | 01 | 4.8 |
| 26-35 | 04 | 19 |
| 36-45 | 08 | 38 |
| 46-55 | 06 | 28.6 |
| 56-65 | 02 | 9.6 |

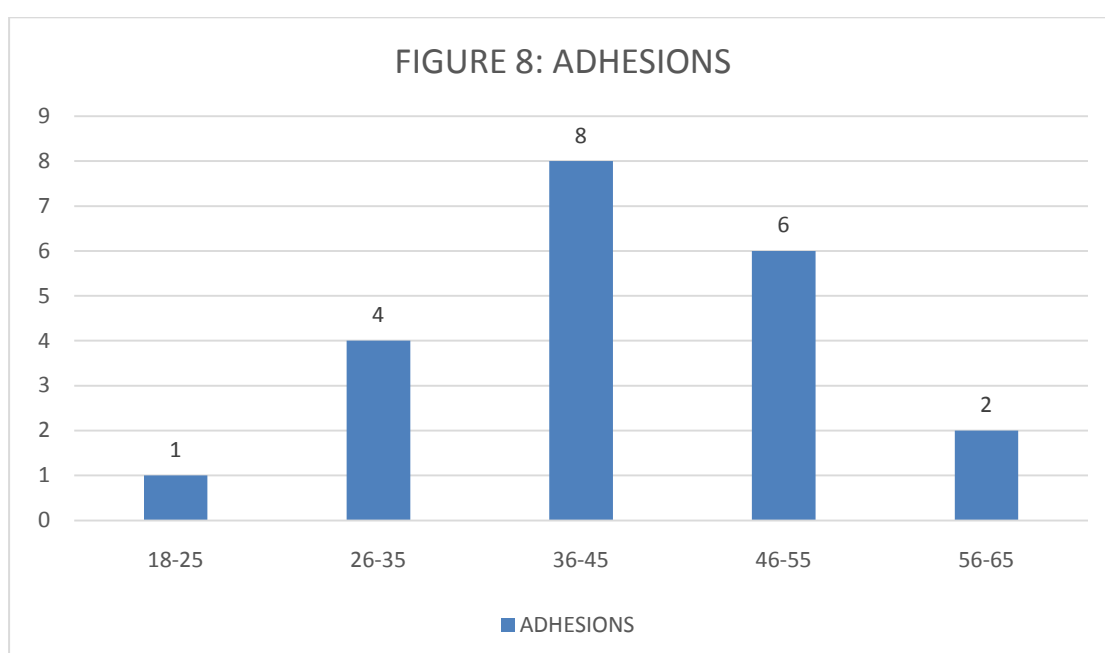


TABLE 8: PROCEDURES

| PROCEDURE | MALES | FEMALES | TOTAL |
|---------------------------|-------|---------|-------|
| Laparoscopic appendectomy | 20 | 17 | 37 |
| Laparoscopic adhesiolysis | 01 | 20 | 21 |
| Ablation | 00 | 02 | 02 |
| Biopsy | 03 | 08 | 11 |
| Nil | 04 | 10 | 14 |

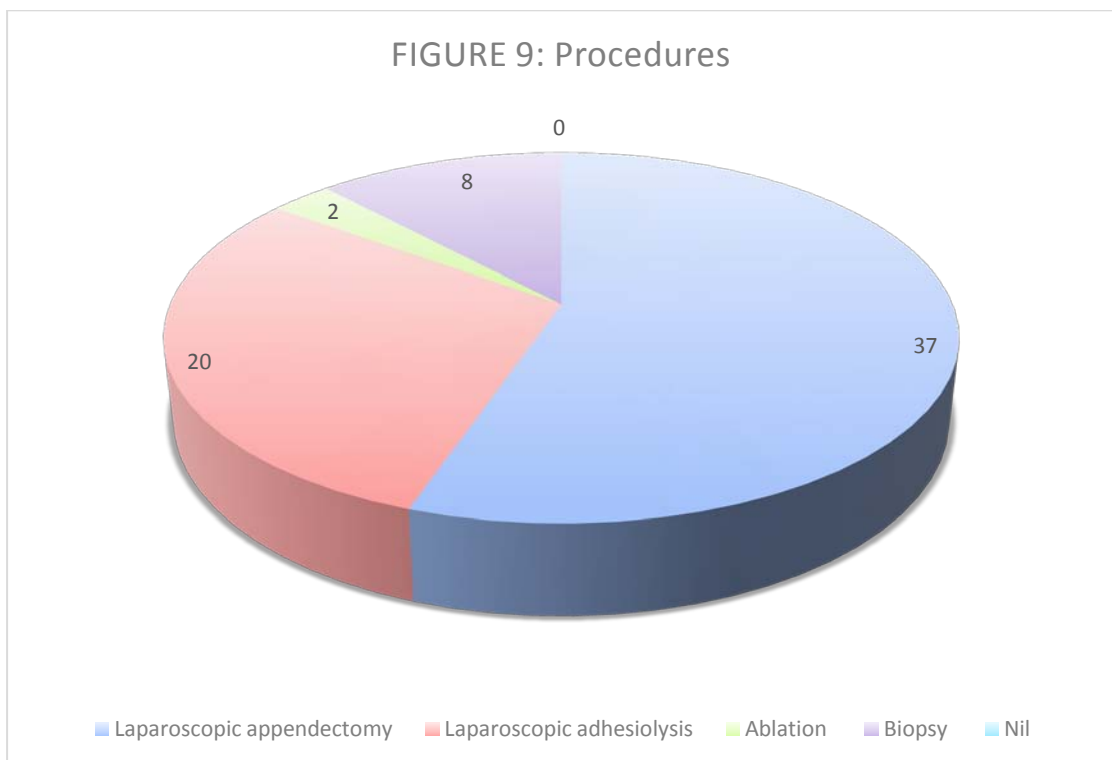
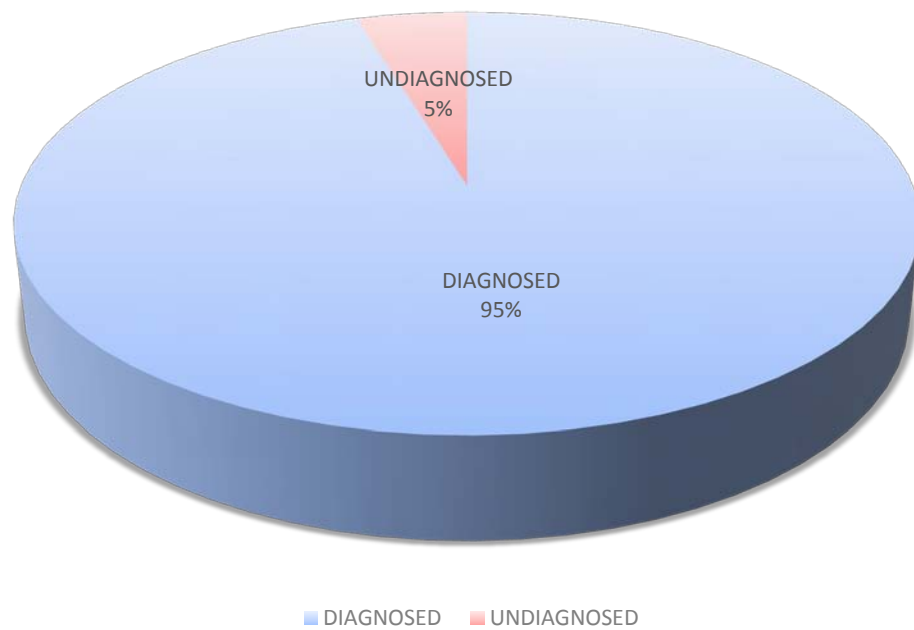


FIGURE 10: OUTCOMES OF DIAGNOSTIC LAPAROSCOPY



RESULTS

In this observational study (A study on role of diagnostic laparoscopy in evaluation of chronic lower abdominal pain), 85 patients were analyzed.

There were 28 males and 57 females. Lowest and highest age of the patients included in the study was 18 and 6 respectively.

Patients with chronic lower abdominal pain had associated symptoms such as nausea, vomiting, fever, burning micturition, white discharge, loss of appetite, loss of weight, constipation, dysmenorrhea and abdominal distention. The most common associated symptom was nausea which was found in 24 patients.

The abnormal findings that were observed by diagnostic laparoscopy include sub acute appendicitis, adhesions, ileocecal tuberculosis, peritoneal tubercles, adnexitis, mesenteric adenitis, mesenteric panniculitis, hydrosalpinx, ovarian cyst, endometriosis and meckel's diverticulitis.

Sub acute appendicitis was present in 37 patients which accounted for about 46% of patients. Out of 37 patients with sub acute appendicitis, 20 patients were males and 17 patients were females. Out of 37 patients with sub acute appendicitis 20 patients were in the 26-35 years age group.

In this study, adhesions were found in 21 patients in which 20 patients were females. 8 out of 21 patients belonged to the 36-45 years age group. Most of the female patients had previous abdominal surgeries such as lower segment caesarean section and or sterilization. Adhesions were most commonly found adhering to the scar over the anterior abdominal wall. All the 21 patients with adhesions were treated with laparoscopic adhesiolysis in the same sitting without any complications.

Peritoneal tubercles were observed in 8 patients in which 7 patients were females. Ileocecal tuberculosis was present in 1 patient. Biopsy was taken in all these patients and they were diagnosed to have abdominal tuberculosis. They are started on anti tubercular drugs.

Gynaecological problems were present in about 10 female patients. Out of 10 patients, 4 patients had hydrosalpinx, 2 patients had adnexitis, 2 patients had endometriosis and 2 patients had ovarian cysts.

Out of 57 female patients, only 10 patients had gynaecological pathologies. Majority of the female patients had non gynaecological problems like sub acute appendicitis, adhesions and peritoneal tubercles.

Out of 85 patients included in the study, 4 patients had normal study. Out of 4 patients, 2 were males and 2 were females.

Out of 85 patients with undiagnosed chronic lower abdominal pain, 81 patients had definitive diagnosis at the end of the procedure.

In this study, 60 patients had definitive therapeutic procedures which is about 70%. 11 patients had biopsy done. 71 out 85 patients had either definitive procedures or ancillary procedures done.

DISCUSSION

In this observational study, 85 patients were studied during the period of March 2018 to August 2018. It is observed that females underwent diagnostic laparoscopy more commonly when compared to male patients. The reason for increased incidence of chronic lower abdominal pain in female patients can be attributed to the additional gynaecological problems that occur in the female patients.

26-35 years age group patients were most commonly affected in our study. This can be attributed to the most commonly observed diagnoses in this study namely sub acute appendicitis and adhesions, which are usually seen in this reproductive age group.

Nausea is the most commonly associated symptom which is present in about 28 percent of the patients. It is because, sub acute appendicitis being the most common diagnosis, is usually associated with nausea.

Sub acute appendicitis is the most common finding which accounted for about 46 percent of the total findings. Males and females are equally affected with sub acute appendicitis.

Adhesions is the second most common finding observed after subacute appendicitis accounting for about 24 percent of the findings. It is

most commonly found in females. The female preponderance can be attributed to the lower abdominal surgeries done in females namely caesarian section and sterilization.

83 percent of the females had non gynaecological problems and 17 percent of the females had gynaecological problems.

About 5% of the patients had normal findings on diagnostic laparoscopy. Remaining 95 percent of the patients had their definite diagnosis at the end of the procedure. It shows the high diagnostic yield of using diagnostic laparoscopy in patients with undiagnosed chronic lower abdominal pain. Diagnostic laparoscopy is a boon to these patients as they tend to have more prolonged suffering as their condition mostly goes undiagnosed by other sophisticated imaging modalities.

84 percent of the patients had either therapeutic procedures or ancillary procedures performed on them. Most commonly performed procedure was laparoscopic appendectomy followed by laparoscopic adhesiolysis and biopsy.

In this study, it was observed that diagnostic laparoscopy has high diagnostic yield in patients with undiagnosed lower abdominal pain in which the imaging modalities such as ultrasonogram and computed tomography fails to identify any definitive pathology.

Diagnostic laparoscopy is not a substitute for clinical examination. All patients should be examined thoroughly and investigated with non invasive imaging modalities such as ultrasonogram and computed tomography to find the cause. The patients who remain undiagnosed even after these investigations were included in the study.

Diagnostic laparoscopy is a valuable tool and when used judiciously it has a high diagnostic yield. It also has an added advantage of performing therapeutic procedures at the same sitting if a treatable pathology is identified during diagnostic laparoscopy.

In a study conducted with 100 patients by Abhay kumar et al, adhesions was the most commonly observed finding accounting for about 30%.

In a study conducted with 88 patients by Ahmad MM et al, 85 percent patients had definitive diagnosis at the end of the procedure. Most common laparoscopic finding was appendicitis.

In a study conducted with 55 patients by Sayed et al, 49 patients accounting for about 89 percent had definitive diagnosis and the most common finding was adhesions accounting for about 38 percent.

Talat N et al conducted a study which had positive findings in 45 patients out of 50 patients included in the study.

Arya K et al conducted a study on using laparoscopy as a diagnostic tool for lower abdominal pain which yielded positive findings in 44 patients out of 49 patients which accounts for about 89percent. Appendicitis, abdominal tuberculosis and gynaecological pathologies were the common findings.

In a study conducted by Raymond anders et el, 39 patients out of 70 had adhesions as cause for chronic abdominal pain.

CONCLUSION

In this observational study that has been conducted for 6 months from March 2018 to August 2018, the use of laparoscopy as a diagnostic and therapeutic tool in patients with chronic lower abdominal pain was studied. The blood and radiological investigations namely ultrasonogram and computed tomographic studies were inconclusive in those patients.

In patients presented with chronic lower abdominal pain, ninety five percent of them had a definitive diagnosis at the end of the procedure suggesting that diagnostic laparoscopy has a high yield in this group of patients.

So, laparoscopy can be used in patients with non specific abdominal pain that is diagnosed by other methods.

Laparoscopic has a high diagnostic yield in women of child bearing age because of the associated gynaecological problems. Unnecessary radiation exposure can be avoided in these patients.

It has therapeutic role in eighty four percent of the patients. Diagnosis and treatment can be done at the same sitting.

Diagnostic laparoscopy is very much useful in diagnosing and treating the patients with undiagnosed chronic lower abdominal pain.

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ANNEXURE

MASTER CHART

| s.no | Name | Age | Sex | Associated symptoms | Ultrasound report | CT report | Diagnostic laparoscopy findings | Procedure |
|------|---------------|-----|-----|---|---------------------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1 | Vinay | 33 | M | Vomiting, fever | Normal study | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 2 | Gopi | 18 | M | nil | Probetenderness | Normal study | Normal study | Nil |
| 3 | Meghna | 22 | F | White discharge pv | Normal study | Free fluid in pelvis | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 4 | Arokiyarnary | 55 | F | Burning micturition | Free fluid in pelvis | Normal study | Adhesions | Laparoscopic adhesiolysis |
| 5 | Suganya | 30 | F | Vomiting white discharge pv | Free fluid in right iliac fossa | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 6 | Malar | 32 | F | Burning micturition, white discharge pv | Free fluid in pelvis | Normal study | Adhesions | Laparoscopic adhesiolysis |
| 7 | Palani | 23 | M | Vomiting, fever | Normal study | Mesenteric adenopathy | Mesenteric panniculitis | Biopsy |
| 8 | Selvi | 28 | F | Nausea | Appendix not visualised | Free fluid in pelvis | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 9 | Thilagavathy | 24 | F | Nausea burning micturition | Cecal wall thickening | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 10 | Mary | 36 | F | Nausea dysmenorrhoea | Free fluid in pelvis | Normal study | Adnexitis | Nil |
| 11 | Saravanan | 33 | M | Nausea | Normal study | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 12 | Yamuna | 28 | F | Vomiting burning micturition | Appendix not visualised | Normal study | Mesenteric adenitis | Biopsy |
| 13 | Balakumaran | 18 | M | Fever, LOA, LOW | Ileocecal thickening | Free fluid in RIF | Ileocecal tuberculosis | Biopsy |
| 14 | Devi | 26 | F | Fever, burning micturition | Free fluid in pelvis | Normal study | Hydrosalpinx | Nil |
| 15 | Shanmugapriya | 40 | F | Nil | Normal study | Normal study | Adhesions | Laparoscopic adhesiolysis |
| 16 | Aswana | 34 | F | Vomiting abdominal distention | Normal study | Normal study | Adhesions | Laparoscopic adhesiolysis |
| 17 | Abirami | 34 | F | Nausea | Appendix not visualised | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 18 | Gokul | 38 | M | Vomiting, fever | Probe tenderness | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 19 | Raghu | 28 | M | Nil | Free fluid in RIF | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 20 | Dharshini | 26 | F | Nausea LOA, LOW | Cecal thickening | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 21 | Deepa | 30 | F | Burning micturition, dysmenorrhoea | Free fluid in pelvis | Normal study | Endometriosis | Ablation |
| 22 | Vaishnavi | 38 | F | Nausea, constipation | Normal study | Normal study | Adhesions | Laparoscopic adhesiolysis |
| 23 | Amirtham | 46 | F | LOA LOW, constipation | Probe tenderness in RIF | Normal study | Peritoneal tubercles | Biopsy |
| 24 | Ranjani | 28 | F | Nausea | Normal study | Free fluid in pelvis | Adhesions | Laparoscopic adhesiolysis |
| 25 | Arunthathi | 32 | F | White discharge pv | Free fluid in pelvis | Normal study | Hydrosalpinx | Nil |
| 26 | Manikandan | 58 | M | Nausea, fever | Mesenteric adenopathy | Normal study | Normal study | Nil |
| 27 | Eswar | 40 | M | Nil | Probe tenderness in RIF | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 28 | Senthamarai | 48 | F | Nausea, constipation | Normal study | Normal study | Adhesions | Laparoscopic adhesiolysis |
| 29 | Ramani | 40 | F | Vomiting fever | Probe tenderness in RIF | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 30 | Venkat | 28 | M | Nil | Normal study | Free fluid in RIF | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 31 | Srinivasan | 19 | M | Nausea | Normal study | Mesenteric adenopathy | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |

| | | | | | | | | |
|----|-----------------|----|---|------------------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|---------------------------|
| 32 | Subash | 23 | M | Fever | Normal study | Free fluid in RIF | Adhesions | Laparoscopic adhesiolysis |
| 33 | Abhinaya | 30 | F | Nausea burning micturition | Appendix not visualised | Normal study | Adhesions | Laparoscopic adhesiolysis |
| 34 | Dharani | 48 | F | Nil | Probe tenderness in RIF | Normal study | Adnexitis | Nil |
| 35 | Lakshman | 40 | M | LOA LOW, fever | Probe tenderness in RIF | Free fluid in RIF | Peritoneal tubercles | Biopsy |
| 36 | Kavirajan | 28 | M | Nil | Normal study | Mesenteric adenopathy | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 37 | Alamelu | 32 | F | Nausea | | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 38 | Bhaghatsingh | 28 | M | LOA, LOW | Normal study | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 39 | Manohar | 58 | M | Burning micturition | Probe tenderness in RIF | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 40 | Jennifer | 26 | F | Nausea fever | Normal study | Free fluid in RIF | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 41 | Renuka | 48 | F | Vomiting | Normal study | Normal study | Ahesions | Laparoscopic adhesiolysis |
| 42 | Sambooranam | 42 | F | Nil | Normal study | Normal study | Ahesions | Laparoscopic adhesiolysis |
| 43 | Ramlal | 26 | M | Vomiting, fever | Probe tenderness in RIF | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 44 | Kalaiselvi | 36 | F | Vomiting, fever | Normal study | Free fluid in RIF | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 45 | Kalaivani | 32 | F | Burning micturition | Free fluid in pelvis | Normal study | Lt ovarian cyst | Nil |
| 46 | Chotilalmandal | 28 | F | Burning micturition, nausea | Normal study | Mesenteric adenopathy | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 47 | Bharani | 28 | F | Burning micturition, LOA, LOW | Normal study | Normal study | Hydrosalpinx | Nil |
| 48 | Mariyammal | 60 | F | Nil | Normal study | Normal study | Ahesions | Laparoscopic adhesiolysis |
| 49 | Papathi | 38 | F | Nausea | Normal study | Normal study | Ahesions | Laparoscopic adhesiolysis |
| 50 | Banumathy | 30 | F | Nil | Normal study | Normal study | Peritoneal tubercles | Biopsy |
| 51 | Lakshmi | 30 | F | Abdominal distention, LOA, LOW | Free fluid in RIF | Normal study | Peritoneal tubercles | Biopsy |
| 52 | Gunasekar | 28 | M | Vomiting, nausea | Normal study | Mesenteric adenopathy | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 53 | Bharathi | 28 | F | Fever, nausea | Free fluid in RIF | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 54 | Periyakolanthai | 32 | F | Fever | Normal study | Normal study | Normal study | Nil |
| 55 | periyayee | 36 | F | Nil | Probe tenderness in RIF | Normal study | Adhesions | Laparoscopic adhesiolysis |
| 56 | Manohar | 60 | M | Vomiting, LOA, LOW | Appendix not visualised | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 57 | Selvam | 40 | M | Nil | Normal study | Free fluid in pelvis | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 58 | Senthil | 56 | M | Nausea, LOA, LOW | Probe tenderness in RIF | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 59 | Kaliyaperumal | 58 | M | Nil | Normal study | Mesenteric adenopathy | Meckels diverticulitis | Nil |
| 60 | Anandhi | 44 | F | Burning micturition, dysmenorrhoea | Normal study | Normal study | Adhesions | Laparoscopic adhesiolysis |
| 61 | Jebaraj | 60 | M | LOA, LOW | Normal study | Mesenteric adenopathy | Mesenteric adenopathy | Biopsy |
| 62 | Chinnammal | 38 | F | Vomiting | Normal study | Free fluid in pelvis | Adhesions | Laparoscopic adhesiolysis |
| 63 | Yasodha | 36 | F | Nausea | Probe tenderness in RIF | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 64 | Yamuna | 42 | F | Nausea, vomiting | Normal study | Normal study | Adhesions | Laparoscopic adhesiolysis |
| 65 | Sumathy | 40 | F | Fever, vomiting | Normal study | Mesenteric adenopathy | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 66 | Senthil | 22 | M | Burning micturition | Probe tenderness in RIF | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 67 | Praveena | 32 | F | LOW, nausea | Normal study | Normal study | Peritoneal tubercles | Biopsy |

| | | | | | | | | |
|----|--------------|----|---|---------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------|---------------------------|
| 68 | Kayalvizhi | 30 | F | Constipation | Normal study | Normal study | Adhesions | Laparoscopic adhesiolysis |
| 69 | Muniyammal | 32 | F | Nil | Normal study | Free fluid in pelvis | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 70 | Bhavani | 28 | F | dysmenorrhoea | Normal study | Free fluid in pelvis | Endometriosis | Ablation |
| 71 | Maragatham | 48 | F | Nausea | Normal study | Normal study | Adhesions | Laparoscopic adhesiolysis |
| 72 | Arumugam | 64 | M | LOA, LOW | Normal study | Mesenteric adenopathy | Peritoneal tubercles | Biopsy |
| 73 | Elumalai | 28 | M | Fever | Probe tenderness in RIF | Normal study | Appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 74 | Rangamma | 36 | F | White discharge pv | Normal study | Normal study | Hydrosalpinx | Nil |
| 75 | Bhavani | 26 | F | Dysmenorrhoea, LOW | Probe tenderness in RIF | Mesenteric adenopathy | Peritoneal tubercles | Biopsy |
| 76 | Gunavathy | 38 | F | LOA, vomiting | Normal study | Normal study | Peritoneal tubercles | Biopsy |
| 77 | Archana | 30 | F | Fever, nausea | Normal study | Normal study | Normal study | Nil |
| 78 | Balamurugan | 32 | M | Nausea | Probe tenderness in RIF | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 79 | Vasanthi | 20 | F | Nil | Probe tenderness in RIF | Free fluid in RIF | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 80 | Manimegalai | 48 | F | Nil | Normal study | Normal study | Adhesions | Laparoscopic adhesiolysis |
| 81 | Hariharan | 42 | M | Nausea | Free fluid in RIF | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 82 | Poongodi | 28 | F | Fever | Probe tenderness in RIF | Normal study | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 83 | Murugammal | 58 | F | Nil | Free fluid in RIF | Normal study | Adhesions | Laparoscopic adhesiolysis |
| 84 | Kalaikkannan | 25 | M | Nausea | Normal study | Mesenteric adenitis | Sub acute appendicitis | Laparoscopic appendectomy |
| 85 | Priyanka | 30 | F | Burning micturition | Enlarged ovary | Normal study | Lt ovarian cyst | Nil |